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ABSTRACT

Eleven criteria for examining the teaching/learning situation in a classroom are proposed. These criteria, which relate to the percent of time students or teachers spend in the activities, are: (1) types of thought processes, (2) activity decisions, (3) motivation, (4) activity differentiation, participation and pacing, (5) activity form relevance, (6) evaluation source, (7) evaluation standard, (8) participative governance, (9) teacher activity, (10) activity mood, and (11) student feelings. Following each criteria, spaces are provided for recording estimates of time spent in the activities, and some of the possible implications of various estimates are discussed. The importance of this method of examining the processes and experiences of the classroom is seen to lie in the fact that teachers become aware of their priorities as evidenced by the varying degrees of emphasis in activities over which they have control, and thus should be in a position to rationally confirm or modify their value priorities. It is stated that the estimates would probably be most valid and reliable if obtained by trained observers. (For related documents, see TM 002 183-186.) (DB)

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AFFECTIVE PRIORITIES IN EDUCATION

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PREFACE

The Interstate Educational Resource Service Center (IERSC) was established in 1970 to serve the states of Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah and Wyoming. The policy under which the Center operates is determined by a Board of Directors made up of the Chief State School Officer from each of the participating states. The funding is provided by contributions from each of the states, and a grant from the U.S. Office of Education under Section 505 of Title V, ESEA.

The Center's priority project, determined by the Board of Directors, is to provide support to the eight states in the identification and specification of affective goals and objectives (self-concept, attitudes, values, motivation, interpersonal effectiveness, social concern and responsibility, etc.), and assistance in the developmental procedures, techniques, and instruments for assessing affective outcomes or conditions which facilitate or inhibit affective growth and development.

This paper is considered to be a valuable addition to the papers that have been prepared specifically for this project. Permission for its use by IERSC has been granted by the author, Dr. David T. Miles of the Educational Research Bureau, Southern Illinois University.

Other papers related to Affective Education available through IERSC are (1) "Affective Goals of Education," (2) "Beyond Behavioral Objectives," (3) "Measurement in Support of Affective Education," and (4) a paper not written as a part of this project but of interest to persons engaged in Affective/Humanistic education "Participative Education and the Inevitable Revolution," a reprint from the Journal of Creative Behavior.

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One way to look at people is that we are continuously changing throughout our lives, recognizing that some people change more than others, and that we all change more at some times in our lives than at others. All experiences to some degree alter people and thus influence how we will think, feel, and act in the future. Experiences may cause us to question and to change, or they may serve to reinforce and strengthen existing beliefs, attitudes, and behavior.

Some experiences make an immediate and dramatic change in people. For example, young children acquire enormously complex capabilities in very short periods of time, largely as a result of experience. Most persons are affected profoundly by traumatic or peak experiences such as the death of someone close, falling in love, moving to a new city or country, encountering the violation or contradiction of basic values, beliefs, etc., or experiencing the sudden resolution of a problem.

Most change in people is not the result of single or even identifiable experiences, however. Most changes occur at such a gradual rate that they are difficult to detect--either in ourselves or in others. People apparently acquire personalities, strategies for solving problems, styles of social interaction, values and attitudes about politics, religion, clothes, sex, music, themselves, and many other things as a result of many experiences over long periods of time, the minute-to-minute or day-to-day changes are nearly

imperceptible.

This phenomenon--in which the consequences of experience are so slow to emerge--causes many problems. A person does not suddenly become overweight, develop poor posture, become a social misfit, or acquire neurotic tendencies. These and many other characteristics develop slowly.

Most change in people is unplanned. Education, however, is a deliberate attempt to produce changes in people. These intended changes are the basis upon which education experiences are designed, the changes which are observed and assessed.

Most of the intended changes in education deal with the acquisition of information and intellectual skills. But many other changes are being produced in people as a result of school experiences which are not planned, observed, or assessed. These "incidental" changes are usually slow to develop, and may be much more important than those which are intended. These kinds of changes involve such human characteristics as self-concept, self-confidence, motivation, attitudes, interests, values, social orientation, interpersonal relations, life skills, cognitive styles, and decision-making strategies. (See Wight, 1971, for a discussion of "Affective Goals of Education.") Moreover, the people who are being changed are usually unaware of the changes being made in them--they are unable to choose which characteristics would be good for them, which they would like to acquire, and which they should reject.

As a result of these incidental changes, students at all levels of education are gradually becoming more or less: aggressive, indifferent, self-reliant, submissive, competitive, altruistic, spontaneous, rebellious, reflective, dependable, cynical, enterprizing, conventional, democratic,

etc., etc., etc.

At the same time, teachers are gradually becoming more or less: authoritarian, humanistic, inhibited, demanding, non-directive, apathetic, resourceful, punitive, empathic, enthusiastic, systematic, self-assured, moralistic, informal, conservative, joyless, outgoing, etc., etc., etc.

Thus teachers and students (and everyone else for that matter) are developing particular characteristics through gradual and indiscriminate learning, as a by-product of their experiences. What can be done about it? Perhaps the most obvious approach to a solution is to first examine what people are thinking, feeling, and doing most of the time and attempt to infer what they are learning. Although such inferences may often appear to be intuitive or speculatory, we can make certain assumptions. We need also to attempt to determine the relationships between the experience and what is learned. Hoetker (1970) has pointed out that:

> . . .there has to be some relationship between what we do every day and what we finally achieve. At the very least, we cannot shape one sort of behavior day after day, year after year, and expect that at the end of their educations students will manifest precisely the opposite behavior. We cannot teach critical independence by insisting on the mechanical application of memorized critical formulas. We cannot teach respect for thought by attending only to mechanics and forms of expression. We cannot teach honest self-expression by punishing disagreements with established opinions. We cannot teach students to be free citizens by treating them as witless ninnies. And, above all, we cannot teach students to honor the common humanity of all men by expressing contempt for the student's own humanity in our every word and gesture.

Although there are numerous theoretical explanations (varying in sophistication) of the way in which learning takes place, this rather commonsensical approach of examining what people do and inferring what learning has occurred would be compatible with the following assumptions:

1. People learn to do what they do often and enjoy.

2. People learn to avoid doing what they do and dislike.

3. People do not learn to do what they do infrequently or not at all.

There are a great many approaches to observing and analyzing what goes on in classrooms. Many involve the use of trained observers who record the frequency of a wide variety of student and teacher behaviors. Other less systematic methods obtain data from questionnaires completed by students and/or teachers. Probably any method which is practical and produces a reasonably accurate account of student and teacher activities and relationships considered relevant to important educational outcomes (positive or negative) would be useful for attempting to discover what might be called the incidental curriculum.

The following set of eleven criteria is proposed as one approach to examining the teaching/learning situation:

1. Types of thought processes--the percent of time students employ these different types of thought processes in learning activities.

2. Activity decisions--the percent of time teachers, the class, student groups, individual students, or someone else selects what learning activities to engage in, and how to conduct the activities.

3. Motivation--the percent of time students engage in learning activities for different purposes or motives.

4. Activity differentiation, participation and pacing--the percent of time students spend in total class activities, small group activities or individual activities; and progress in their learning as a class, as groups, or individually.

5. Activity form relevance--the percent of time students spend in learning activities which are similar, or dissimilar, in form to the learning activities they engage in outside of and after completing school.

6. Evaluation source--the percent of time students obtain feedback regarding their success in learning from the teacher, other students, or themselves (i.e. self-evaluation).

7. Evaluation standard--the percent of time the feedback students receive regarding their success in learning is based on a comparison with other students as opposed to a comparison with some other standard, e.g., individual improvement.

8. Participative governance--the percent of non-academic rules and regulations of the classroom and school which students, teachers, and others (e.g., principal, superintendent, etc.) participate in deciding upon.

9. Teacher activity--the percent of time teachers engage in three general activities: a) design, preparation, evaluation, b) personally delivering instruction, and c) facilitating, supporting and consulting.

10. Activity mood--the percent of time the general mood or atmosphere of activities is: a) orderly and businesslike, b) enthusiastic and exciting, c) informal and relaxed, etc.

11. Student feelings--the percent of time students have various feelings about themselves regarding their experiences in learning activities, e.g., accepted and appreciated, responsible and dependable, imaginative and creative, inadequate and inferior, etc.

These criteria are explained in more detail on the following pages. Spaces are provided for recording estimates of the percent of time students and teachers do various things or the extent to which students and teachers engage in particular activities for each criterion. The estimates would probably be most valid and reliable if obtained by trained observers. More practical, and less reliable, estimates could be obtained from student interviews and/or questionnaire reports. If it is the student's affective change we are concerned about, however, his perceptions and evaluations, whether accurate or not, would be one of the best indicators. Even more practical and less reliable would be the teacher's estimates based on his observations of his class and recording of data over a period of time. The most practical and least reliable method would be for the teacher to make estimates on the basis of a mental review of what he remembers about such class activities.

To get some flavor of how an analysis of school-related activities might provide insight into what students may and may not be learning, it is suggested that readers employ the latter method described above (vicarious review) in examining each criterion. Teachers might record estimates for one of the classes or courses they are presently teaching. Non-teachers might wish to record estimates for any course, instructional program or curriculum with which they are familiar. Readers who are students might record their perceptions of activities in a class they are taking or one they have taken recently. Recording and contrasting ideal with actual estimates could serve to identify any gross inconsistancies between what a teacher would like for his students to be learning and what they may be learning.

Following each criterion, some of the possible implications of various estimates are discussed. It is suggested that the reader examine these possible implications carefully, as a basis for inferring what students may or may not be learning in the school situation being analyzed and as a basis for deciding what changes may be implied. (For additional discussion of the possible implications of many of the process issues included in the eleven criteria, see Wight, 1970.)

1. TYPES OF THOUGHT PROCESSES

What percent of the time do learning activities require or encourage students to employ each of the following types of thought processes?

A. Acquiring, recalling, recognizing, and reproducing information and ideas.

B. Applying information and methods to new situations; evaluating and judging things according to standards.

C. Producing new and different ideas, solving problems, creating and inventing.

	%
A. ACQUIRING AND RECALLING INFORMATION	
B. APPLYING INFORMATION AND SKILLS TO NEW SITUATIONS	
C. CREATING, INVENTING, SOLVING PROBLEMS	
TOTAL =	100%

IMPLICATIONS

It is difficult to suggest universal implications for this criterion since the ideal percent of time spent in each type of thinking would probably vary for different students, grade levels, and subjects. However, a roughly equal amount of time spent in each type of thinking might be generally desirable for many subjects and levels. The justification for this contention is essentially that some Type A thinking is required as a prerequisite for Types B and C thinking, e.g., one must know several facts, concepts, and principles about architecture before one can analyze, evaluate, solve problems, and produce creative efforts in architecture. This is not meant to imply that Type A learning activities must necessarily come first, however. Acquisition of information or ideas may follow attempts to solve problems (Type C), for example.

Type A thinking is generally of little value alone. Without practice in applying and using information in some integrated and meaningful ways

(not passing factual memory tests) the information is typically forgotten rapidly or the learner is unable to generalize or make the application outside class or school to non-academic situations.

Another approach to determining ideals for this criterion would be to identify the actual distribution of time spent in each type of thinking by persons engaged in post-school life activities (occupational and non-occupational). It then might be reasonable to suggest that a similar distribution should exist in schools and courses which are designed to prepare people for such life activities.

According to the three assumptions about learning mentioned earlier, if the emphasis in a course were on acquiring facts and concepts, and students were recognized and rewarded only for this kind of thinking--this may be the only kind of thinking learned. Or stated conversely, if students do not frequently practice and enjoy a particular type of thinking--such as flexible or imaginative thinking--they will not learn this type of thinking. Also, if a type of thinking, such as problem solving, is done frequently but disliked because the students are rarely successful, or such thinking is primarily associated with anxiety producing experiences such as tests, students will engage in that type of thinking only when required.

Probably the most common imbalance of this criterion is too much time spent in Type A thinking as compared to the other two. Type C, creative thinking, may frequently be underemphasized in courses. The ideal mix of thinking types may often be more a matter of values than scientific prescription. Nevertheless, becoming aware of what the mix is should at least permit teachers to determine whether what is happening is what they think or feel should be happening.

2. DECISIONS REGARDING OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES

What percent of the time do the teacher, the class as a whole, student groups, or individual students decide what should be learned, what learning activities to engage in, and how to conduct the activities? (Decisions of how to conduct activities would include materials and resources to use, when to start and stop, rate of progress, where to do it, with whom to do it, guidelines to follow, etc.)

	%
A. SOMEONE OTHER THAN THE TEACHER OR STUDENTS DECIDES	
B. TEACHER DECIDES	
C. CLASS DECIDES	
D. STUDENT GROUPS DECIDE	
E. INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS DECIDE	
TOTAL =	100%

IMPLICATIONS

The implications for this criterion are primarily involved with three issues: what is learned, the future value of what is learned, and the efficiency of learning. Most people would agree that the ability and inclination to make decisions about what and how to learn is an extremely valuable characteristic for most adults in most societies. Thus, it would seem reasonable that students would be expected to have some practice in making such decisions while in school. If students have no practice in decision-making, goal setting and seeking, self-directed learning, etc., these skills are not likely to be learned (Assumption 3, pg. 4). (See Wight, 1971, "Beyond Behavioral Objectives," for further discussion.)

Since most people also spend a good part of their life participating with

groups of people in making decisions and sharing the consequences of their decisions, some mix of practice in decision-making at the individual, group, and class level would seem desirable. Likewise, people often find it necessary to do things in which they had no part in deciding upon--which would justify some school experience in activities decided upon by the teacher or the system.

But learning to make decisions individually and jointly, and to live with other peoples' decisions is not the only thing of value which people should learn in school. This, of course, raises the familiar question of who knows best what students should learn? For vocational or professional education, such decisions are not so difficult, since what people will be doing in various occupations can be reasonably well specified. But general public school and college education decisions are considerably more difficult, since the total range of life activity is what students are to be prepared for. Certainly such areas as basic communication skills and health information would be considered valuable by most people. Many other subjects are also considered essential by many people. In fact, it seems that there are so many absolutely necessary things for students to learn that students often have little opportunity to choose what they want to learn.

Such decisions are typically a reflection of the priorities of educational objectives of a particular teacher or curriculum designer. If it is considered more valuable for students to learn some specific subject matter, material, or skills than to make educational decisions, then little time would be allotted to student selection of activities. Similarly, if efficiency in learning teacher-selected objectives were considered of paramount importance, teachers would probably be reluctant to turn over much authority to students

for deciding how to conduct learning activities. Student-directed learning can, of course, by highly efficient, given that appropriate resource materials are available and students "choose" (and are taught) to use them.

What this criterion does is essentially to clarify where the ability and attitude related to student decision-making stands in the priority list of a teacher's or the system's educational goals or values. If it is low on the list, little time would be expected in the last three categories. If it is of high priority, students would be expected to spend more time making decisions about their education.

Priorities regarding individual and group decision-making should also be reflected in such an analysis. Hopefully, by becoming aware of what is actually occurring in their classes, teachers can make informed decisions themselves as to whether they are satisfied with the extent to which students are learning to take responsibility for their own learning and the extent to which they are providing students with opportunities to do so.

3. MOTIVATION

What percent of the time do students engage in activities for each of the following purposes or motives?

		%
A. To satisfy personal interest or curiosity--want to know what, how, or why--the activity appears challenging, interesting, or fun.	A. CURIOSITY-INTEREST	
B. To acquire knowledge or skills the learner feels will be valuable in the near or distant future, i.e., reading, computing, voting, appreciating music, etc.	B. OBTAIN PERSONALLY USEFUL KNOWLEDGE OR SKILL	
C. To obtain rewards unrelated (or extrinsic) to what is learned such as: social praise from teachers, parents, or peers to get good grades, honors, financial rewards, to get higher scores than other students, etc.	C. EXTRINSIC REWARDS	
D. To avoid negative consequences for not engaging in activities, such as: disapproval from teachers, parents, or peers, being left out, being punished, etc.	D. AVOID NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES	
	TOTAL =	100%

IMPLICATIONS

This criterion is difficult to assess by any method since students may often be unaware of the "real" reasons they engage in certain activities. They often learn to do what they are required or expected to do without questioning the reason. Students in public schools generally have no choice regarding whether or not to be in school and have few choices regarding what courses to take once they are there.

But within a course, students do generally have a personal perception of

their reasons for doing what they do. Most teachers also have some idea of the major purposes students have for engaging in learning activities. For some students the grade, report card, and grade point average is the big thing. Others clearly see the future value of certain skills or knowledge as paramount, and engage in them for that reason, and so on.

Then are any of these motivations bad or wrong? Perhaps not--probably most people do different things for each of the four motivational categories every day. But isn't doing things out of curiosity or personal interest better than doing them to avoid distasteful results or to obtain extrinsic rewards? Answers to these questions are mostly value judgments regarding what people ought to be like, but judgments that affect what the teacher does and what the student learns.

If you believe that most adults do what they do primarily to obtain extrinsic rewards, then you would probably want to have students do what they do for extrinsic rewards a large percent of the time. If you believe that people should be motivated to learn what they consider useful in the future, they should have experience in doing just that. If your conception of man assumes some other primary purpose for his actions, then you would prefer another time distribution.

Since it is well known that motivation--or the reasons people behave as they do--is learned and can be taught, this criterion seems extremely important. Every course and teacher makes some contribution to shaping the motives and values of students. Are you satisfied with the kind of motivation you are shaping by the priorities you assign to various types of learning activities?

4. ACTIVITY DIFFERENTIATION, PARTICIPATION, AND PACING

What percent of the time do students spend in each of the different types of activities designated below?

		%
A. Class Activity, Participation, and Pacing All students do the same thing together as a class, and progress at the same pace.	A. CLASS ACTIVITY, PARTICIPATION, AND PACING	
B. Class Activity, Group Participation and Pacing All students do the same thing, but work together in groups and each group progresses at its own pace.	B. CLASS ACTIVITY, GROUP PARTICIPATION AND PACING	
C. Class Activity, Individual Pacing All students do the same thing, but each student works independently and progresses at his own pace.	C. CLASS ACTIVITY, INDIVIDUAL PACING	
D. Group Activity and Pacing Students work together in groups; each group does a different thing and progresses at its own pace.	D. GROUP ACTIVITY AND PACING	
E. Individual Activity and Pacing Each student does something different and does it at his own pace.	E. INDIVIDUAL ACTIVITY AND PACING	
	TOTAL =	100%

IMPLICATIONS

This criterion deals with various forms of individualization or personalization of instruction. As in Criterion 2--Activity Decisions--this criterion involves priority decisions regarding what is to be learned and assumptions regarding the efficiency of learning. Generally the first category--Class Activity, Participation, and Pacing--is the least efficient type of instructional activity. The reason is that instruction is usually

geared for some average level student, while the faster students are held back and get bored, and the slow students get lost. Also, students are not often given opportunities to make active responses and obtain feedback. This type of learning activity remains as one of the most popular, however, particularly at the college level. Perhaps it is least expensive in expenditure of time, energy, and money to operate. In any case, there may be some jusitification for total class activities so that students may learn how to participate in large group activities. They may also learn something about their relative aptitudes and capabilities by being exposed to other students. One must question, however, the amount of time necessary to learn large group participation (usually passively listening) and something about how one compares with other students. With the predominant emphasis on comparative testing and grading, we may be over-achieving this goal.

For the last type of activity--Individual Activity and Pacing--if each student has materials that are geared to his personal capabilities and interests, this is probably the most efficient type of instruction. This type also can have a positive influence on self-directed learning. The potential limitations of this type are that it is usually costly in time and money, and, if it were the sole type of activity employed, students would not have opportunities to acquire valuable social skills, learn about other students and themselves in relation to others, from participation in group activities, or to acquire group problem-solving and decision-making skills.

In general, one could say that activities in which individual students progress at their own pace have the potential for students to learn at the most rapid rate. This, of course, assumes the availability of materials, facilities, and personnel which can support this type of activity. Small

group activities and projects can also generate considerable cooperative spirit and thus be reasonably efficient learning activities. In some instances, group activities may be more efficient in terms of learning--students can learn from one another, motivate one another, etc. Such activity also contributes to acquiring social attitudes and skills. Probably a case could be made for participation in all five types of activities for some portion of time. The question is again, what are your priorities? How much learning efficiency are you willing to give up for social skills? How much self-direction are you willing to trade off for less expensive instruction? Are you happy with what students are learning from the type of social structure of activities they are experiencing? Are decisions regarding individual, small group, and large group activities based on efficiency and desired outcomes?

The estimates for this criterion should also clarify the extent to which you believe students ought to learn the same or different things in your course. If the majority of your students' time is spent in activities associated with Categories A, B, or C you could conclude that you feel all students should be learning the same material. Activities associated with Category D suggest that different groups of students should achieve different learning objectives, and Category E implies that each student is to learn something different. This latter category, in which each student has both individual goals and learning activities, is the highest level of personalization of education. On the other hand, Category C, in which students have the same goals and learning activities but progress individually, is the most common type of individualization employed in public schools and colleges.

As mentioned earlier, decisions regarding who should learn what in school are profoundly complex and value-laden. When one considers the many successful people who successfully mastered little of what was considered essential to learn in school, questions of what "must" be included in a curriculum become even more difficult to answer. Nevertheless, underlying all decisions of what students ought to learn are the assumptions and value priorities of some individual or group regarding what people and society ought to be like.

It would seem reasonable that all knowledge and skills essential for individuals to achieve a happy and successful life should be required learning for all students. If your analysis of such life essentials turns up few universals, then it might be expected that your students would be spending little of their time in common learning activities (Categories A, B, and C). If, on the other hand, you are able to define a large body of knowledge and several particular skills that are essential for everyone to have, then you should feel comfortable about students spending a large portion of their time in one or more of the activities described in A, B, or C.

5. ACTIVITY FORM RELEVANCE

What proprotion of the learning activities are similar in form (not the content or subject matter) to the learning activities students engage in outside of and after they complete school?

A. Highly Relevant: Activities which are highly similar to non- and post-school activities, e.g., discussing, making decisions, solving problems, independent investigation, acquiring information from various sources, playing.

B. Low Relevance Activities which are uncommonly done outside of school, e.g., reciting information, taking notes in lectures, conducting laboratory experiments, taking tests, writing book reports.

	%
A. HIGHLY RELEVANT TO NON-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES	
B. LOW RELEVANCE TO NON-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES	
TOTAL =	100%

IMPLICATIONS

The implications of this criterion are rather obvious--if students will be expected to transfer their methods of learning to situations outside the school, they must have practice in learning methods which typically occur outside the school. This does not mean that all academic-type learning activities are unjustified. Rather, it is more a matter of balance, or perspective. From some peoples' point of view, a large portion of time in low-relevance activities could be justified for various reasons--such as learning efficiency and certain subject matter constraints. It is doubtful whether a course with no highly relevant activities could be justified, however. The reason here is that there are few, if any, courses which should be concerned only with student learning while in a course. In fact, many people feel that the main measure of a course's success is whether students engage in activities (think about, apply, learn more about) related to what was presented in a course after completing a course.

6. EVALUATION SOURCE

What percent of the feedback regarding a student's success in learning is obtained from the teacher, other students, or himself (self-evaluation)?

	%
A. TEACHER	
B. OTHER STUDENTS	
C. SELF	
TOTAL =	100%

IMPLICATIONS

This criterion involves such human characteristics as self-directedness, independence, and self-awareness. If students receive feedback on the results or quality of their efforts only from their teacher, they may have a difficult time acquiring confidence in their own judgment. Consistent dependence on external sources of feedback can surely hamper a person's ability to independently initiate, self-monitor, and complete projects. On the other hand, if students only self-evaluate the quality of their work and supply their own feedback, they could develop a somewhat biased or un-realistic viewpoint of their capability and competence. People need some external reality checks if for no other reason than to adjust or calibrate their standards for self-evaluation.

External feedback is particularly important in the area of social learning and interpersonal relations. Without such feedback, it is essentially impossible to learn how we are being perceived and are affecting others.

Then, what are your value priorities? When should people be more self-evaluative? When should they be more concerned about and influenced by feedback from their peers or their teacher? What should people be like? Are they learning to be that way in your class?

7. EVALUATION STANDARD

What percent of the time is the feedback which students obtain regarding their success in learning based on a comparison with other students as opposed to a comparison with some other standard, e.g., individual improvement, a fixed standard of achievement, completion of some task, movement toward or completion of an objective, etc.

	%
A. COMPARISON WITH OTHER STUDENTS	
B. INDIVIDUAL OR FIXED STANDARD	
TOTAL =	100%

IMPLICATIONS

The student who receives "C's" and "D's" or even "B's" in most of his courses for twelve or more years must have a hard time ignoring the message about his relative competence. Other messages about the competitive, win-lose, scarcity of success interpretation of a society and the values placed on academic achievement cannot be ignored by all students who experience the evaluation and grading system employed in most schools and colleges. We live in a competitive society and certainly some experience with comparative evaluation would seem justified. But the question is, how much of the destructive, win-lose competition found in society is a result of conditioning in school?

It might also be questioned as to whether the extensive emphasis on ranking and classifying students regarding their relative achievement might not interfere with learning. Some competition may be motivating, but most people give up in the face of continued failure, and our comparative evaluation

of students (the grading system) in the traditional classroom insures that the majority will fail (where an A grade is success). (For further discussion of measurement and evaluation considerations, see Wight & Doxsey, 1972, "Measurement in Support of Affective Education.")

Some of the recent work on mastery-learning and criterion-referenced evaluation has pointed out that one of the major factors contributing to varying levels of achievement is that of holding the amount of time to learn constant. Since students learn at different rates, it is hardly surprising that some will learn more than others in a set amount of time. When time is not fixed--but certain levels of achievement are--it is found that nearly all students can achieve the desired level. It's just that some take a little longer to get there than others. Some people today are also questioning whether it is necessary or desirable to even employ comparative evaluation standards in school. Since every human being is different--with different aptitudes and inclinations, one might question the humanistic intent of continually comparing students on the one criterion of how fast they learn things. Similarly, one might reasonably question the justification for requiring all students to learn the same things (other than some basic skills), or to attempt to achieve the same levels of mastery. Underlying much of the writing containing such heretical questions appears to be a high priority concern for the self-esteem of students and concern about the social problems associated with low self-esteem, self-confidence, etc. Such writers would say that if a student doesn't feel proud of himself about something--if he doesn't have some feelings of self-worth and competence--if he isn't significant in his own eyes, he just isn't going to make out very well in anything.

Well, what are your data and priorities here? Do they match?

8. PARTICIPATIVE GOVERNANCE

What percent of the non-academic rules and regulations of the classroom and school do students, teachers, and other sources participate in deciding upon?

	%
A. STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNANCE	
B. TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNANCE	
C. OTHER: (e.g., PRINCIPAL, SUPERINTENDENT, BOARD OF EDUCATION)	
TOTAL =	100%

IMPLICATIONS

The implications for this criterion are pretty straightforward. If students have little or no voice in establishing the rules and regulations under which they live, how are they going to learn to be participative citizens in our democratic society? How does one learn to become self-disciplined and responsible without the opportunity to discipline oneself or to act responsibly?

With experience solely in a system which demands compliance with rules set by some authority, how can students learn anything other than to comply or rebel? And more importantly, how can they be expected to operate in any way other than in an authoritarian manner when they find themselves in a leadership position?

It also seems reasonable that students should have some experience in complying with rules they didn't participate in establishing. There are many laws and regulations that we have had no part in originating, but with with we must comply.

These same factors apply to teachers--since they are not invulnerable to learning values about modes of governance. Teachers and students seem to be the people most directly affected by the educational enterprise. The classroom experience is the major part of their lives. How much should they have to say about the quality of that life? How much do they have to say now?

From a practical point of view, there is considerable evidence that understanding, acceptance, and commitment are directly related to the extent of involvement in the decision. Fewer controls are required if persons participate in making the decisions.

With all this in mind then, who should make what kinds of decisions?

9. TEACHER ACTIVITY

What percent of the time are teachers engaged in each of the three general categories of activity described below?

A. Design, Preparation, Evaluation
Activities in which the teacher is not in direct contact with students; including planning activities; preparing and selecting resource materials; documenting and evaluating the progress of students, etc.

B. Personally Delivering Instruction
Activities in which the teacher serves as the major source of information and personally manages learning activities, e.g., delivering lectures; giving demonstrations; directing class recitation, question-answer sessions or discussions, testing, etc.

C. Facilitating, Supporting, Consulting
Activities in which the teacher helps students plan and carry out activities in which the teacher is not the main source of information or manager of the activity, e.g., individual and group projects, independent study, student-centered discussions, etc.

	%
A. DESIGN, PREPARATION, EVALUATION	
B. PERSONALLY DELIVERING INSTRUCTION	
C. FACILITATING, SUPPORTING, CONSULTING	
TOTAL =	100%

IMPLICATIONS

The implication of this criterion deals primarily with the influence on students' independence and self-direction, plus the efficiency of learning. It is probably apparent that when the teacher is personally delivering instruction, students are not learning to become independent and self-directed learners. In addition, this type of instruction is generally less efficient

then more individualized approaches. With more individualized approaches to instruction, teachers would probably be spending more of their time in preparation, evaluation, and facilitation of student learning. This criterion also has some clear implications for teachers. Teachers who spend most of their time dealing with students as a total group have little time to interact on a one-to-one or small group basis with students. This limits the potential for students and teachers getting to know each other as individuals and breaking down the impersonal barriers commonly associated with formal group instruction. The consequences of this may be profound regarding teachers' satisfaction and enjoyment of their work, as well as the student's satisfaction and learning.

Certainly the practicalities of student numbers and availability of materials and resources can have a great influence on what types of instructional activities teachers engage in. A teacher's training and experiences as a student, as well as the instructional philosophy of his peers and administrators, also contribute to shaping instructional styles. But, perhaps an analysis of activities such as this criterion suggests may stimulate a re-examination of the premises upon which present procedures are based.

10. ACTIVITY MOOD

What percent of the time is the general mood or atmosphere of activities one or more of those listed? (Since many of these moods can exist at the same time, enter responses for all moods considered appropriate.)

	%
A. INTERESTING AND REWARDING	
B. TENSE, ANXIOUS, THREATENING	
C. STIMULATING, CHALLENGING	
D. ORDERLY AND BUSINESSLIKE	
E. INFORMAL AND RELAXED	
F. DULL, BORING	
G. CHEERFUL, PLEASANT	
H. COMPETITIVE	
I. COOPERATIVE	
J. DISORGANIZED, CONFUSED	

IMPLICATIONS

The predominant mood or climate of activities can be evaluated from at least two points of view: (1) as a measure of the quality of life people are experiencing in the classroom and (2) its influence on students' attitudes and performance. The mood in the classroom is primarily a reflection of the values of the teacher. If you believe that most life activities should be predominantly orderly and businesslike, then you should be most pleased if this were the mood of most class activities. If, on the other hand, you feel that people should be cheeful, enthusiastic, and cooperative most of the time, you would strive to achieve this quality in the class. Of course,

everyone has a somewhat different idea of what types of social moods contribute to an ideal quality of life. Very likely some time spent in all the moods listed could be justified. Some life experiences are just dull and tedious and some learning activities are too. But, how much?

Students' attitudes toward different subjects as well as toward school itself seem to be highly impressionable. When students are excited and are also successful in a course, they very often end up liking the subject, which in turn may result in their pursuing the subject on their own or taking additional courses in the field. Dull, threatening, or unpleasant experiences in a course can just as easily turn a student off from a subject.

11. STUDENT FEELINGS

What percent of the time do students have one or more of the listed feelings about themselves regarding their experiences in learning activities? (Enter responses for all categories considered appropriate.)

	%
A. ACCEPTED & APPRECIATED BY TEACHER	
B. ACCEPTED & APPRECIATED BY PEERS	
C. OPEN, SHARING, RISKING	
D. DEPENDABLE, RESPONSIBLE, COOPERATIVE	
E. HONEST, SINCERE	
F. OBEDIENT, RESPECTFUL	
G. COMPETENT, SUCCESSFUL	
H. FAILURE, INFERIOR	
I. IMAGINATIVE, CREATIVE, DARING	
J. INDEPENDENT, SELF-DIRECTED, SELF-RELIANT	
K. SELF-AWARE, SELF-ACCEPTING	
L. RESPONSIBLE FOR OWN LEARNING	

IMPLICATIONS

The same implications described under the previous criterion would also apply here. In addition, this criterion has implications for various personal and social values. Several of the feelings listed are closely associated with self-concept. If you feel that people ought to feel accepted and competent in order to live a rich and productive life, then you would also want students to have such feelings in your class.

Perhaps you might believe that students should feel all of the positive feelings listed most of the time. Then, how close are you to this ideal?

We seem to be currently re-discovering the enormous importance of feelings and emotions in all human activity. Certainly student's feelings about themselves can have profound effects on the efficiency of their learning as well as their experiences outside of and after completing school. People who feel incompetent, insecure, or dependent upon the direction of others will rarely set personal goals, take risks, extend themselves, or in any way try to realize their potential. How should students feel about themselves? How do they really feel?

SUMMARY

This method of analyzing the percentage of time spent in various activities or experiences is one example of how teachers and other educational personnel might examine the processes and experiences of the classroom to get some indication of what learning outcomes are being fostered. Most of the eleven criteria identified have no clear right or wrong percent of time distribution. Rather, the ideal time distribution is a matter of personal priorities and values. The important issue is that teachers become aware of their priorities as evidenced by the varying degrees of emphasis in activities over which they have control. Such awareness is of particular importance for the unplanned or unintended learning which is continually occurring. Given such awareness, they should be in a position to rationally confirm or modify their value priorities. Such complex decisions can and should provoke frequent soul searching analyses of the characteristics of one's ideal society and ideal man in that society, and the contribution of the educational experience to both. Although concerns of such magnitude are often held to be the sole province of philosophers and funding agencies, each and every teacher is continually making a direct contribution to the shaping of our society. Thus, teachers, like all others who have something to do with arranging environments and events which have an influence on what people will be like, must find ways of examining what they are doing, projecting the possible outcomes, and responsibly acting upon the basis of such information. This is particularly important for teachers, who control a significant segment of the person's environment during his formative years, a time when most of a person's attitudes toward himself and the world are being formed.

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